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DIVISION OF EXHIBITS
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSAL EXPOSITION, ST. LOUIS, 1904

MONOGRAPHS ON EDUCATION
IN THE
UNITED STATES

EDITED BY
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER
President of Columbia University in the City of New York

16

SUMMER SCHOOLS
AND UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

BY
GEORGE E. VINCENT
*Associate Professor of Sociology, University of Chicago; Principal of
Chautauqua*

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
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Chief of Department
HOWARD J. ROGERS, Albany, N. Y.

MONOGRAPHS
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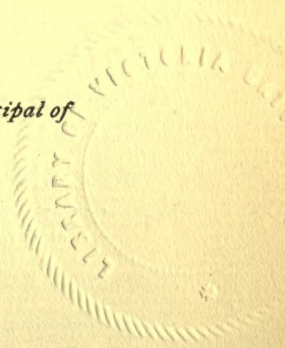
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SUMMER SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

THE ORIGIN OF SUMMER SCHOOLS

The student of institutions is tempted to discover obscure origins and to trace beguiling analogies. Thus the Olympian festivals of ancient Greece, the philosophical schools of Athens, the medieval universities all have been suggested as remote foreshadowings of American summer schools. However fascinating the tracing of such parallels may be, the truth is that summer schools as they are known in the United States are the growth of practically the last thirty years. They have sprung up in response to varying demands and to meet widely different ends. They have passed gradually from an early or spontaneous stage into certain types and organization until they are recognized as a part — although a somewhat unrelated part — of the educational system of the United States.

The specific demands which have called summer schools into being fall naturally into groups. University teachers in supplementing their regular work have gathered students about them in the long vacation, and in later years the universities themselves have established summer instruction. Again, the need of better training for public school teachers has created not only institutes but also summer schools which prepare teachers for professional examinations, and in other ways offer means of advancement.

Furthermore, groups of people with common interests, schools of thought, societies for promoting reform and other organizations have deepened the loyalty of their members and carried on a propagandum by means of summer gatherings. So, too, individual teachers with their assistants have gone to the country to teach languages, music and art. Finally, religious bodies and educational

institutions dominated by religious motives have played an important part in summer school enterprises.

These varied demands are to-day met by scores of institutions, some of which combine many different functions, while others are devoted to special purposes. By inevitable processes of experient and imitation, uniformities have begun to appear, and the conventionalizing stage is already well advanced. Perhaps the most striking feature of this organizing movement has been the tendency to bring summer schools into closer relations with the institutions of higher education. Indeed, the summer school movement is only one aspect of that democratizing of the higher education which finds expression also in reading circles, in university extension, in the library movement, in social settlements and other agencies for bringing the intellectual, esthetic and moral resources of the few into the possession of the many.

THE GROWTH OF SUMMER SCHOOLS

If we take into account summer excursions undertaken by university professors of geology and biology in company with groups of students, we can push the beginnings of summer instruction into the first half of the nineteenth century. Thus, Professors Marsh and Dana of Yale, Professor Orton of Vassar, and Professor Agassiz of Harvard, were accustomed to take with them into the field small parties of their more promising students.

In 1869 summer instruction in geology was conducted in Cambridge under Harvard auspices. In connection with this work expeditions were made to western Massachusetts. In 1871 the Massachusetts institute of technology gave field instruction in metallurgy and mining in parts of New Jersey and Pennsylvania, while two years later Professor Lewis Agassiz opened his zoological laboratory on Penikese island in Buzzards bay. In 1874 the first Chautauqua assembly held a ten days' session on Chautauqua lake in southwestern New York. This was destined to prove a center from which a peculiar type of summer institution

has spread to all parts of the country. In 1876 Dr. Sauveur established at Amherst, Mass., a school for the specialized type designed to deal wholly with linguistic study, the chief stress being laid upon French and German, although the classical languages, as well as Italian and Spanish, were included in the curriculum. A year later the University of Virginia established summer teaching in chemistry, while during the same season an institution of the Chautauqua type was founded at Lakeside, Ohio, and in Chicago the first summer school of oratory was opened under the auspices of the Soper school. At Martha's Vineyard in 1878 the needs of public school teachers were first definitely provided for in a summer school of pedagogy. And during the same season three assemblies on the Chautauqua plan appeared in Indiana, Kansas and California. A summer gathering of a new kind was established at Concord, Mass., in 1879 by a group of men and women interested in the idealistic philosophy. During the next eight years few new schools were founded. In 1887 the Harvard medical school established summer courses, and in 1888 a marine laboratory began its work at Wood's Holl, Mass. In 1889 the Massachusetts institute of technology offered summer courses in engineering. In 1890 a number of new institutions appeared in different parts of the country. The first natural science camp for boys was inaugurated on the shores of Canandaigua lake; the Shinnecock summer school of art began its work on Long Island; the Art academy of Cincinnati established summer instruction; the State university of Indiana offered summer courses at Bloomington; the Drake university of Des Moines, Iowa, announced a summer school of methods designed especially for school teachers; the Kansas state normal school at Emporia entered the same field; the Young Men's Christian Association held its first student conference at Lake Geneva, Wis., and another Chautauqua assembly convened at Madison, S. D. The next year saw continued activity in the spread of summer institutes. Schools of methods were established in Boston

and in Evanston, Ill. Hull House, the social settlement of Chicago, held its first summer school at Rockford, Ill., while at Grand Rapids, Mich., a summer school for kindergarten training was opened. During the same season the State university of Minnesota began to offer regular summer courses.

In 1892 the Catholic summer school of America announced lecture courses and classes. The school was held at Cliff Haven, N. Y. Clark university, at Worcester, Mass., and Ohio university, at Athens, joined the ranks of higher institutions providing summer instruction. The Y. M. C. A. held student conferences at Northfield, Mass., and at Asheville, N. C. In 1893 the number of centers for summer teaching multiplied rapidly. Teachers' institutes and Chautauqua assemblies were added to the list of summer schools. The University of Nebraska also opened its doors to vacation students. The season of 1894 saw new teachers' training schools established in Massachusetts, North Carolina and Colorado. The University of Michigan for the first time announced summer courses. The next year a summer theological seminary was opened at Newburgh, N. Y., while the most notable event of the season was the inauguration by the state of New York of two institutes for teachers, one at Chautauqua and the other at Thousand Island Park. During this same season the University of Indiana set up a biological station on Winona lake, Ind.; the Catholics announced a summer school at Detroit; the University of Michigan gave summer courses in law, and a school for library training was opened at Madison, Wis.

During the season of 1896 the New York state library gave instruction in library methods at Albany; a school of comparative religions was established at Elliot, Me., and the University of Illinois began to offer vacation courses. A year later the Jewish Chautauqua began its annual session at Atlantic City, N. J.

In 1898 the Cleveland summer school of library science

held its first session. The next season the University of California adopted the summer school policy. In 1900 Columbia university, New York, and Cincinnati university opened their doors to summer students. The Brooklyn institute established a biological laboratory at Cold Spring Harbor. Throughout this entire period each year saw a number of Chautauqua assemblies founded in various parts of the country, and many more or less ephemeral schools of art, music, industrial training, etc., sprang up. The whole history of the movement serves to emphasize the fact already mentioned, that schools have developed in response to local needs and as a result of waves of imitation spreading from one end of the country to the other.

STATISTICS OF SUMMER SCHOOLS

It is difficult to gather trustworthy data for accurate statistical statements concerning summer schools. The United States bureau of education has published a list of summer schools.¹ This does not, however, contain statistics as to attendance. The Home education department of the University of the State of New York has, since 1893, gathered facts concerning summer schools. Bulletin No. 39² contains a list of schools for the summer of 1900. The total number of schools reporting is 124. Of these 13 were established before 1880; 7 between 1881 and 1885; 22 during the next five years; 50 between the years 1891 and 1895; 22 in the period 1896-1901. Twelve schools, in their reports, fail to give a date of organization.

As to the distribution of schools, the north Atlantic division heads the list with 46, of which 20 are in New York and 15 in Massachusetts. The north central states are credited with 42 schools, of which 12 are in Illinois, 8 in Ohio, 7 in Michigan and 6 in Wisconsin. Virginia reported 4 schools, North Carolina 3. In the western states Colo-

¹ Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1894-5, pp. 1483-1503.

² Home Education Dept. Report of Extension Teaching, 1900, University of the State of New York, Albany, 1903, pp. 389-90.

rado is credited with 4, California with 5 and Oregon with 1. The total number of students reported by these summer schools in 1900 was 28,708. Of these, a majority were women. It is not possible to state with accuracy the distribution by sex because of the carelessly prepared returns. It is necessary to exercise caution in interpreting such statistics as these. When it is borne in mind that a good many of the schools are interested in making a satisfactory showing; when it is further remembered that the idea of "student" varies widely in the different schools, this total should be considerably reduced in order to approximate the number of persons engaged in serious study.

A more satisfactory judgment can be based upon the following table, which summarizes the official returns from fourteen leading universities which offer summer instruction:

REGISTRATION OF SUMMER STUDENTS AT CERTAIN UNIVERSITIES FOR THE SESSIONS OF 1900-1903.

UNIVERSITY.	1900.			1901.			1902.			1903.		
	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.
California.....	338	461	799	398	432	830	400	459	859
Chicago.....	1,006	668	1,674	1,113	1,262	2,375	1,142	1,104	2,246	1,137	1,107	2,244
Columbia.....	114	303	417	153	426	579	252	391	643	412	581	993
Cornell.....	205	281	486	259	241	500	377	224	601	381	223	604
Harvard.....	274	510	784	248	519	767	275	462	737	473	713	1,186
Illinois.....	70	45	115	132	72	204	132	96	228	134	91	225
Indiana.....	333	453	569	479
Michigan.....	404	416	499	633
Minnesota.....	1,019	784	1,088	818
Missouri.....	236	149	385	294	296	590	260	217	477	1,021	1,070	2,091
Nebraska.....	191	256	254	191
New York.....	61	52	113	42	21	63	62	51	113	57	62	119
Ohio Wesleyan.....	101	102	98	75
Wisconsin.....	216	118	334	254	121	375	254	154	417	258	142	400
	2,181	2,126	4,307	2,823	3,419	6,252	3,152	3,131	6,283	3,283	3,448	6,731

An inspection of the table discloses certain facts. First, there is on the whole a steady increase in the number of summer students at the universities. The numbers at Chicago, Cornell, Columbia, Minnesota, Michigan and Missouri are noteworthy. The large increase at Harvard in 1903 is to be attributed almost wholly to the fact that the National Education Association met in Boston last July. The figures further show that in so far as universities offer a wide range of subjects and approximate the normal work of the regular curricula that the number of men increases. On the other hand, the universities which offer summer work appealing especially to school teachers have a large proportion of women.

Tuition Fees and Expenses.— In the case of universities which charge a summer tuition fee we find a tendency to something like uniformity. A fee of about \$20 for three courses extending over six weeks has come to be the rule. The fee varies somewhat, but tends toward a *pro rata* of ordinary academic fees. In some schools a fee is charged for each course. This varies from \$5 to \$10 for one hour a day, or five hours a week for six weeks. In case of special schools much higher fees are often charged. In schools of music, art, elocution and the like the fees are usually those charged for private lessons in city studios—they may even exceed these rates, although the tendency is to fall below rather than to rise above the average winter charge.

The cost of board varies from \$2 to \$10 per week. The average price may be placed at about \$5. The cost of living varies with the locality and with the accommodations available. Several of the universities, such as Harvard, Columbia, the University of Chicago, admit summer students to the university dormitories, and in some cases serve meals in the university commons. In many of the summer normal schools held in smaller towns the price of board and lodging is very low, while in cities and at the more popular summer resorts the cost of living tends to rise. On the whole the expenses of the summer student are about the same as those

of a student in residence for the same length of time during the regular academic year.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF SUMMER SCHOOLS

The multiplicity of purposes which have found expression in the summer schools makes it a puzzling task to classify them. Several principles of classification have been applied. Thus, Dr. Stephen B. Weeks¹ has classified them into five groups, according to the phases of education which they emphasize, and again he has made three groups from the standpoint of control. Dr. W. W. Willoughby² subdivides summer schools into (1) those for original research and the training of specialists; (2) summer schools which give instruction in single subjects; (3) Chautauqua assemblies and a large miscellaneous residuum. On the whole, it is believed that the following classification will serve as a fairly satisfactory method of grouping summer schools:

1. Academic schools.
2. Schools of pedagogy.
3. Specialized schools.
4. Schools of art, music, expression, etc.
5. Popular classes and lectures, of the Chautauqua type.

Academic Schools.—Under this head may be grouped those schools which offer a wide range of college and secondary subjects for a period of six weeks. Most of the university and college summer sessions fall into this class, to which also belong certain other schools, such as those of Chautauqua, Winona and Bay View. These schools appeal especially to teachers who are not pursuing strictly professional courses, but who are rather increasing their control over subject-matter while they at the same time aim at general culture. To some extent college students resort to these schools either for advanced standing or to make up entrance and college deficiencies. Schools of this academic type really provide a continuation of college and high school

¹ Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1894-5, pp. 1485-90.

² Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1891-2, pp. 895-7.

instruction of the more conventional sort. The summer term for schools in this class is almost uniformly six weeks. The session opens soon after the fourth of July and closes about the middle of August. Experience has shown that these dates include the period which the majority regard as most convenient for summer study. Instruction in schools of this class is given almost wholly by university, college and high school teachers, who employ practically the same methods which they use throughout the rest of the year. In certain cases the lecturing may be somewhat less formal, and almost always the tests are less rigid. Inasmuch as most of these schools have no system of certificates, this laxity of administration works a minimum of harm. It should be noted that in the case of certain colleges and universities the standard for summer instruction is virtually the same as that which prevails throughout the rest of the year. The greater maturity of summer students makes it possible to employ a somewhat different system of class administration.

Schools of Pedagogy.—The chief reason for making the separate classification of the schools which offer professional training to teachers lies in the fact that the overwhelming majority of summer students belong to the teaching profession. While teachers are resorting in increasing numbers to schools of the academic class, a majority are still found in schools which aim at a special professional training. Many of these schools have features of the academic type, but they lay stress upon educational psychology, teaching methods, "drill and review" courses in school subjects and other disciplines which bear directly upon school work, and which fulfill requirements for certificates and professional promotion. The large summer normal schools appear naturally in this class. More than twenty summer institutes under state auspices belong also in this category, to which might be added hundreds of county and district institutes which meet during the summer in all parts of the country. The fact already noted that the work of these summer schools bears directly upon the promotion of teachers to

higher positions is a source of danger. The schools are too likely to become coaching machines for examination and certificate purposes. The leading schools of this class, however, are holding up higher ideals and rendering an important service to professional training of a broader kind.

Specialized Schools.—To this class may be assigned those summer institutions which concentrate upon one subject or one group of closely related subjects. The schools of this group may be further subdivided :

(a) Summer schools for research. Under this head belong the marine laboratories which have already been mentioned. These schools are designed for specialists and not for ordinary students. The numbers who frequent them are, from the nature of the circumstances, small. The sessions extend over six weeks, and in some cases include the entire summer vacation. In one sense these schools are not strictly "summer schools," but rather the extension of university laboratory work into the vacation. The marine laboratory at Wood's Holl, Mass., and the Clark university school of psychology at Worcester are most conspicuous types of this subdivision.

(b) Professional schools. Under this head belong summer schools of law, medicine, theology, library training and other institutions which aim at preparation for definite professional or specialized occupations. These schools are for the most part under academic auspices, although some of them are conducted for profit on a commercial basis. The law schools at the University of Virginia, University of Michigan, University of Chicago, the library schools at Albany, Chautauqua, Winona and Madison may be cited as representative of this subdivision.

(c) Schools of philosophy and ethics. Certain groups or schools of thinkers have from time to time established summer schools which deal with a specialized interest, and yet belong in a subdivision of their own. The Concord school of philosophy, the School of applied ethics at Greenacre, the school of the same type at Plymouth, Mass.,

are representative of this class. The instruction is unconventional, consisting of lectures and conferences. In the case of these schools we have a distinct departure from the regular academic methods which prevail in the schools above described. It is difficult to estimate the educational value of these institutions. They appeal exclusively to people of education and a certain degree of reflective power; they are "schools" in a different sense from that in which the word has heretofore been used in this classification.

(d) Religious and biblical conferences. In the late eighties Mr. D. L. Moody established at Northfield, Mass., summer conferences on biblical and religious themes. These meetings were soon developed into a gathering for college students at the end of June or the beginning of July; and later in the season a general conference for Christian workers, biblical students and others. In 1895 Dr. Sol C. Dickey was a prime mover in founding the Winona assembly and summer schools at Winona lake, Indiana. Here a few years later Dr. J. Wilbur Chapman established what is known as the Winona bible conference. Both Northfield and Winona attract large numbers. At the latter place especially ministers have gathered by the thousand for a ten days' series of addresses, sermons, conferences and devotional services conducted by leading evangelists and noted preachers from England, Scotland and the United States. Winona is an institution of the composite type including summer schools, a popular program and other features. Those who administer Winona seek to combine the Chautauqua and Northfield ideas in a more or less original way. It is further to be noted that both Northfield and Winona, the latter on a large scale, are adding industrial and technical schools for young people. These schools continue throughout the usual academic year, while the buildings are utilized in July and August for summer school and other purposes.

Schools of Art, Music, Expression.—Under this head belong schools which usually represent a personal following.

For example, Mr. William M. Chase, the artist, goes for a few weeks each summer to the Shinnecock hills, Long Island, where he gathers about him a group of pupils whose work he criticises and to whom he gives informal lectures. In the same way well-known musicians and teachers of elocution and oratory give instruction during the vacation season. Occasionally the work is conducted in city studios but usually these summer schools are held at attractive places in the country. To these schools resort many teachers of art, music and expression who, released from their own work, seek contact with leaders in their own professions. These summer schools, therefore, serve as normal institutes for the teaching of those arts which as yet have not been regularly admitted to the curricula of academic institutions.

Popular Classes and Lectures.—There remains another type of summer institution which it is hard to classify, *i. e.*, a Chautauqua assembly, or, as it is often called, “a Chautauqua.” The name comes from an assembly held for the first time in western New York in August, 1874. Many of these Chautauqua assemblies combine elements which have already been described in preceding classifications. Thus, some of them have a complete system of academic summer schools; they offer pedagogical and professional training. They provide classes in art, music and oratory. Chautauquas of this kind are really composite in their nature. They add, however, another idea — that of a series of public lectures, conferences, entertainments and concerts not technically of an educational character but which represent important influences. Moreover, in origin and generally in the extension of Chautauqua assemblies a strong religious motive has been present. In most cases the assemblies are non-sectarian, in a few they are fostered directly by denominations. Nearly two hundred assemblies have taken the name Chautauqua, although scores of them have imitated only one or two features of the original Chautauqua plan, neglecting its more fundamental principles. The average Chautauqua of the imitative type lays chief stress upon popular lectures,

concerts, readings and entertainments. Noted lyceum lecturers, men prominent in public life, well-known reformers and persons who for various reasons are temporarily conspicuous are invited to the platforms of these institutions. Many of them are commercial enterprises, sometimes subsidized by railways, street-car lines or merchants' associations, sometimes managed as stock companies for profit.

There is another and smaller group of Chautauqua assemblies which introduce class exercises extending over ten days or two weeks. These classes usually deal with literature, Bible study, elementary science, elocution, music, practical arts, such as cookery, various forms of manual training and the like. In the lecture schedule the miscellaneous, unrelated addresses are to some degree replaced by courses of continuous lectures of the university extension type. Even in these assemblies the popular program plays a leading part. It is the means by which the institution secures its revenue. An economic necessity compels the management to exploit persons technically known as "attractions" or "talent."

There is a still smaller group of Chautauqua assemblies, among which the original Chautauqua institution is the most conspicuous, in which stress is laid upon a wide range of class instruction extending over six weeks, upon systematic university extension courses and upon other exercises which have a direct educational value. In these institutions the popular program also has an important place in providing timely addresses in great variety; music of a worthy kind; wholesome entertainment, thus adding to the pleasures of a community life which the institutions seek to foster.

TYPICAL SCHOOLS

A clearer idea of the character of summer schools may be gained from a rather more detailed description of certain institutions which may be regarded as typical of the classes already outlined. Of the academic schools we may select two types: First, a summer school under university auspices,

i. e., teaching *at* a university ; second, summer instruction as a regular part of the university year, or teaching *by* a university. To represent the first class we may select the Harvard summer school, while for the second we may choose the University of Chicago.

The Harvard Summer School.—Summer teaching at Harvard was originally wholly in science. It began under the impulse given by Agassiz and his friends. As early as 1869 Harvard professors gave instruction in geology with field excursions. In 1872 Agassiz held his first school on Penikese island. It was not until 1874 that regular summer instruction in botany and chemistry was given at Cambridge. From year to year the course was enriched by the adding of other sciences. In 1887 a departure was made in the establishment of a school of physical training under the direction of Dr. Sargeant. A year later courses in French and German were offered for the first time, while in 1889 physics and field engineering were added to the list. Gradually subject after subject has been included until in 1903 courses were offered in twenty-nine departments, namely: Sanscrit, Greek, Latin, English, speaking and reading, German, French, Spanish, Russian, history, civil government, economics, psychology, education, theory of design, drawing, music, mathematics, teaching of mathematics, astronomy, surveying, shop work, physics, chemistry, botany, geology, geography, mineralogy, physical education. The registration of students in 1903 was unusually large. This was doubtless due to the fact that early in July the National Education Association held its annual meeting in Boston. Thus the registration for 1900 was 784 ; for 1901, 767 ; for 1902, 737 ; while for 1903 the number reached 1,186. If 1902 be regarded as a normal year an analysis of registrations will give some idea of the special work of the Harvard summer school. The total number of registrations in 1902 was 890. Of this number 204 were in physical education, 165 in English, 80 in theory of design, 70 in mathematics, 70 in education, 44 in chemistry, 38 in history, 33 in

geography and 30 in geology. In all other departments the registration was comparatively light. It is clear from these figures that there is a concentration at Harvard upon a few departments, of which physical education and English are far in the lead.

The Harvard summer school was originally an unofficial affair. Certain members of the faculty offered courses on their own responsibility, receiving compensation from the tuition fees of students. Little by little the university has assumed a responsibility for the summer work, which is now under the control of a faculty committee. The students' fees are paid to the university burser, while salaries for the summer staff are appropriated directly by the trustees. In this sense the work has secured official recognition. The Harvard summer session has passed from private to official control. Yet the six weeks' session is not an organic part of the university work. Credit for the summer courses is not regularly granted by the university, although, in certain circumstances, university standing may be secured. The summer students are not included in the regular statistics of university attendance, or, rather, these numbers always appear in a separate category. One of the features of the Harvard summer school, which has been adopted by other institutions, is the plan of Saturday excursions into the historic regions about Boston. It is interesting to note that the first work at Cambridge was in connection with geological expeditions. The policy has been extended to include excursions to Concord, to Lexington, to Plymouth and to other places of historic and literary interest. Field excursions in science and nature study are also continued.

A notable episode in the history of the Harvard summer school was the special provision made for Cuban teachers, who were brought to the United States in the summer of 1901. Nearly thirteen hundred of these Cuban teachers were transported free by the government, while the Harvard authorities raised an entertainment fund of \$70,000. As to definite educational results secured by this experiment there is very

little tangible evidence, but the experiment undoubtedly had important social and political bearings. It was conceived in a liberal spirit and is a sufficiently notable undertaking to deserve mention in connection with the Harvard summer school.

The University of Chicago.—In 1891 the University of Chicago announced continuous instruction on the quarter plan, *i. e.*, an academic year of four quarters of three months each. It was explicitly stated at the outset that the summer quarter would have in every respect the same academic status as that of any other quarter of the year. The university opened its doors to students October 1, 1892. On account of the World's fair the summer quarter of 1893 was omitted, but the following year the full system was inaugurated and since then has been in continuous operation. All departments of the university are open to students during the summer quarter. A considerable percentage of students who register in the summer are also in residence during the other quarters of the year. It is true, however, that the majority of students in the summer are registered for the summer quarter only. From the very outset, summer teaching at the University of Chicago has been upon a university rather than upon the summer school basis. The policy of the university is to afford continuity of work for regular students, of whom an increasing number take advantage of the opportunity to shorten their college courses. Again, by the summer quarter the university seeks to provide full university privileges for teachers in the public schools as well as for instructors and professors in smaller colleges. Experience has shown that a large constituency are eager to avail themselves of the opportunities offered. The statistics for the last few years indicate a large attendance, and show the distribution of students among the different departments. In 1900, 1,006 men and 668 women, making a total of 1,674 were enrolled. In 1901 the total enrollment reached 2,375, of whom a little more than half were women. The next year 2,246 students were in attend-

ance. At this session the men were slightly in majority. During the last summer (1903) the enrollment was practically the same, 2,244, of whom 1,137 were men and 1,107 were women. A somewhat detailed analysis of the registration for 1903 gives the following results: In the divinity school there was a total registration of 223, of whom 200 were men. Of the 712 graduate students in residence, 451 were men. The registration in the graduate department is explained by the fact that high school and college instructors and advanced students take advantage of the summer quarter. In the senior and junior years of the undergraduate course, 213 students were registered, 125 men and 88 women. In the sophomore and freshman classes 86 men and 77 women were enrolled. Students who are not able to matriculate with regular academic status, *i. e.*, with full high school courses or with a high school course and advanced college standing, are known as "unclassified" students. In 1903, 445 unclassified students were in residence. Of these 321 were women. Here we have represented a large number of public school teachers pursuing special courses. In the medical school 81 were registered, all but three of whom were men. The 46 students of the law school were men, while out of the 361 pursuing courses in the school of education, all but 27 were women. At this point again we note a constituency of school teachers.

The distribution of registrations for the summer quarter is significant. Of the 4,223 registrations in 1903, 593 were in English, 265 in philosophy, 377 in history, 375 in Latin, 307 in Germanic languages, 224 in romance languages, 239 in mathematics, 210 in chemistry. The other departments were represented in approximately normal proportions. These figures make it evident that the work of the university in summer is typical university work in which normal demands are made upon all departments. There is no concentration upon a few specialized lines of work.

Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute.—Although many pedagogical institutions are at the present time more promi-

nent, the Martha's Vineyard institute deserves especial notice because of the pioneer service which it has rendered. Founded in 1878 by Dr. Homer B. Sprague and his colleague, Professor Elliwood, the school originally assumed an academic character. Instruction was offered for six weeks in botany, entomology, geology and mineralogy, zoology, microscopy, French, German, Greek and Latin, English, literature and oratory, industrial training and pedagogics. In the first year the teaching staff included representatives of Cornell, Vassar, the Boston Latin school and the state normal schools of Rhode Island and New Jersey. Eighty students were enrolled. The numbers increased steadily from year to year. The Shakespearean scholar, Professor W. J. Rolfe succeeded Dr. Sprague as president. Col. Francis W. Parker, Dr. William T. Harris, Mr. F. L. Soldan were prominent in the work of the institution during the earlier years. By 1887, 250 students were in attendance. In 1888 a school of methods was incorporated with the academic curriculum. By 1891 a comprehensive course in subject-matter and teaching methods had been developed. Elementary, high school and academic divisions were included, stress being more and more laid upon the pedagogical side of the instruction. The school, now under the charge of Dr. William A. Mowry, has maintained its honorable position to the present time although as has already been indicated it is overshadowed in numbers of students and in resources by several pedagogical schools which have sprung up during the last ten years. In 1903 30 instructors conducted courses for 300 students.

The Summer School of the South.—In 1902 the Summer School of the South, a school of methods for teachers, was opened at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The session lasted for six weeks. The attendance was unexpectedly large. In 1903 the experiment was continued; 149 different courses were offered in a wide range of subjects among which may be mentioned kindergarten and primary work, drawing, art, manual training, domestic

science, expression, music, physical culture, nature study, agriculture and horticulture, physiology and hygiene, psychology, education and the usual academic branches. The teaching staff included 91 members while 2,150 students were enrolled, of whom 662 were men. Exhibits of school work from different parts of the United States, model libraries, exhibits of apparatus, text books and school supplies were important features of the school. The expense of maintaining the school in 1903 was approximately \$30,000. The school was subsidized by the General Education Board and by Knoxville citizens.¹ This institution must undoubtedly be regarded as a very important step in raising the educational standards and the qualifications for teachers in the south.

The Marine Biological Laboratory. — In 1881 a marine laboratory was established at Annisquam, Mass., under the joint auspices of the Women's Educational Association of Boston and the Boston Society of Natural History. The school was conducted successfully for five years. Unlike other experiments of this kind students as well as investigators were admitted. In 1886 an appeal was made to the biologists of the country to make the laboratory a center of biological research. Funds were raised, a charter secured, and in 1888 a marine biological laboratory, with Dr. C. O. Whitman as director, was re-established at Wood's Holl, Mass., a point on Buzzards bay admirably situated for the collection of specimens. In his opening address Dr. Whitman made it clear that the laboratory was to be regarded as devoted primarily to research. "I have no sympathy," he said, "with anything merely devoted to elementary instruction, and unless the greater part of the energy is given to original work it is of no interest to me." The attendance for the first year was 15. In 1896 there were 74 investigators and 103 students. In 1899 the numbers were 71 and 78 respectively, while in 1903 the investigators numbered

¹ University of Tennessee Record, Nashville, Oct., 1903, pp. 262-3.

76 and the students 54. By the co-operation of nearly 30 colleges and universities, research rooms and "tables" are provided for investigators and students. The laboratory publications now number about 400, and represent contributions of first importance. The laboratory is a "biological clearing house" for the whole country. It promotes inter-university fellowship, stimulates the growth of biological science, and tends to become an agency through which universities and colleges recruit their teaching staffs. The marine laboratory at Wood's Holl is, in its very nature, a university institution, appealing only to investigators and to advanced students.

Chautauqua Institution.—In 1874 the Chautauqua Sunday school assembly was founded by Lewis Miller, of Akron, Ohio, and Dr. John H. Vincent, now a bishop of the Methodist Episcopal church. The first session was held for ten days in August on the shores of Chautauqua lake in southwestern New York. The fundamental idea of the assembly was to afford a broader training for Sunday school teachers, to combine formal instruction with informal conferences and to provide elements of recreation and entertainment. Although the founders were members of the Methodist Episcopal church, the assembly was made from the outset unsectarian. Among the speakers were representatives of all the leading denominations. More than 1,000 persons interested in progressive Sunday school ideas attended the first session, which aroused an enduring interest.

The next year the plan was continued and extended. Instruction in Hebrew and Greek from a biblical point of view was begun in 1875. The following year English literature was included. By 1878 French and German had been added to the list of studies, and in the same year the "teachers' retreat" was inaugurated under the charge of Dr. J. W. Dickinson, of Boston. Thus, within four years of its founding, the Chautauqua assembly began to provide instruction for the teachers of the public schools. Each year now saw a lengthening of the session, an enrichment

of the popular lecture program, an enlargement of the curriculum of the summer schools. In 1883 Dr. William R. Harper, now president of the University of Chicago, became the head of the summer school department of Chautauqua, and for fourteen years rendered service of the greatest value in building up the distinctively educational side of Chautauqua work. It was in 1878 that the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle was founded. This plan of home reading extending over four years and offering what was described as the "college outlook" to mature people met with instant success. The first year over 7,000 readers were enrolled and within a few years 60,000 were pursuing the prescribed courses of the circle. After 1883, under the direction of Dr. Harper correspondence work in college subjects was inaugurated and carried on successfully for a number of years. Thus, within ten years from its founding, Chautauqua had developed from a Sunday school assembly into a popular educational institution appealing to earnest and ambitious people of all classes, providing summer school instruction, directing home reading, conducting thorough personally supervised correspondence courses. The institution has grown steadily from the beginning. At one time under a charter from the state of New York, Chautauqua was empowered to confer degrees. A few degrees were granted, chiefly to bachelors of divinity and to, perhaps, a score of bachelors of arts. With the assuming of correspondence instruction by two or three leading universities Chautauqua was relieved from work of this type and surrendered the degree conferring power. In 1902 a new charter was issued to Chautauqua, the name being changed to the Chautauqua institution.

Chautauqua is a summer community with a maximum resident population of 10,000 or 12,000 people. More than 30 public buildings provide accommodations for the educational work. In 1903, 74 instructors offered 187 courses to 2,158 students in 15 different schools. In connection with the popular program, there were 113 lectures, 48 religious

addresses, 14 illustrated lectures, 26 readings, 20 entertainments, 38 concerts, 9 sermons.

Chautauqua is more than a summer school and a popular program. It is community and an institution. From the very beginning the sentiment of loyalty has been fostered by many devices. Ritual, ceremony, processions, anniversaries, songs, have all played their part in developing an *esprit de corps* which gives the place a distinctive character. The strong religious motive which was present at the beginning has dominated the whole life of the institution. This religious motive has not, however, taken a narrow or sectarian form. The institution recognizes the symmetry of a life which includes intellectual, æsthetic, recreative, associative as well as distinctively religious elements. It attempts to combine these in the summer into a stimulating and sane environment, and throughout the year to direct and encourage the reading of thousands of persons to whom regular educational opportunities are denied.

THE THEORY OF SUMMER SCHOOLS

It is characteristic of human nature to solve problems, to develop institutions and then to seek a reason for the thing that has been done. We have seen that summer schools sprang up in response to certain needs. It was inevitable that the conservative elements in the community should resist the new idea. At the beginning, college and university men were naturally skeptical concerning summer schools. Thirty years ago the democratic tendency in higher education was far less marked than it is to-day. The old aristocratic traditions were still dominant. The college professor and the college graduate were suspicious of popular education. These are some of the points which were raised against summer schools: They would encourage superficiality in education; would foster the idea that the higher education after all is comparatively a simple matter, and that a summer course would go far toward accomplishing the results achieved by a whole year of resident study. It

was insisted that thousands of people would be induced merely to dabble in intellectual pursuits. This would beget in these ephemeral students a kind of arrogance which would be nothing short of intellectual hypocrisy. In a word, these brief courses would turn out vain and complacent persons who would not only be insincere themselves, but would bring true learning into disrepute.

Moreover, the critics feared that competent teachers could not be secured. Men engaged in university and college work throughout the year ought not to assume further burdens of teaching; those likely to be engaged for the work would be of the cheap and "popular" type, intellectual middlemen mediating between the university and the vulgar herd. Then, too, the majority of the students, school teachers, ought not to spend their time of rest in continued confinement to the class room. The long vacation was regarded as a time of sacred idleness, not to be employed in intellectual work of any kind. Still other critics who were not wholly unsympathetic, pointed out the dangers of unrelated summer study. The absence of a fixed curriculum, the application of the elective system without supervision, seemed to them to make for a kind of mental dissipation, a sort of intellectual "sloppiness," which could not fail to be a real menace. There were even a few who seemed to fear that by summer study many would be led to forego a regular college course, substituting vacation pursuits for the more serious and persistent academic work. Then there was, from certain supersensitive sources, a kind of sarcasm and ridicule heaped upon the whole idea.

In reply to these criticisms the advocates of the summer school movement urged that superficiality was at best a relative term, and that while summer study could not be expected in the main to make for profound scholarship, yet concentration upon a single pursuit for six weeks might result in distinct progress toward the mastery of many a subject. The evils of diffused effort were frankly recog-

nized, and attempts were made to guard against the dangers involved. Much was made of the value of informal personal contact between students and teachers of strong individuality. It was asserted that summer schools, so far from competing with the regular college courses, would popularize higher education and increase the number of college students. The important influence of social contact between students from various parts of the country was also urged. Then, too, it was insisted that in almost all summer schools there is a combination of study with recreation; that the conditions of summer study are so different from those of the winter work of teachers that under wise regulation summer school study may be made genuinely recreative. Moreover, the great national summer schools were described as "clearing houses of ideas" and "nerve centers" for the control of public opinion. Under these somewhat commercial or biological figures we have expressed the important truth that professional and intellectual enthusiasm are greatly stimulated and made more effective by such contacts as the summer schools provide. Of late years more has been heard of the loss of time involved in the long vacation. It has been pointed out that this long vacation originally grew out of economic and social conditions which have been greatly modified; that it is not, therefore, a sacrosanct period which may not be encroached upon. Vacation schools for children, summer camps and other places for juvenile instruction are now common. These are but another form under which the summer school idea is finding recognition. On the whole, the critics have served a useful purpose in pointing out dangers which have existed and still lurk in summer schools, but experience has demonstrated that these objections are not vital, and that the dangers which they impute may be either avoided or minimized.

THE FUTURE OF SUMMER SCHOOLS

It is never safe to make precise prediction as to the future of human institutions. It is possible, however, to suggest

the projection of a curve of tendency. The facts seem to warrant the following general predictions :

1. The number of summer schools will not continue to increase rapidly. The statistics given by the University of the State of New York¹ show a diminution in the number of schools reporting. In 1893 there were 105 ; in 1896, 251 ; in 1900, 105. If we except the multiplication of so-called Chautauqua assemblies of the local, commercial type, we shall find that the weaker schools are yielding to the competition of the larger and stronger institutions. The result seems likely to be that a few strong schools in each state will serve the purpose of summer instruction. This in itself is an encouraging sign.

2. There is undoubtedly a tendency to strengthen the teaching staffs in summer schools. Thus, at the universities professors of higher rank are in increasing numbers taking the places which at first were filled almost exclusively by young instructors. In the case of summer schools not directly connected with universities, the practice is to secure stronger men, chiefly from well-known educational institutions.

3. Summer instruction tends to come more and more directly under the control of colleges and universities ; that is, to be incorporated in the regular educational system of the country. The utilizing of the university plants, the economies of administration, etc., will inevitably lead to this result.

4. The state, notably in the middle west, may be expected to give increasing support to summer schools especially for public school teachers. Here, again, the summer institutes will be assimilated and incorporated into the normal school system.

5. It seems likely that the tendency to specialize which characterizes all modern movements will play a part in the development of summer schools. There is sufficient evidence at hand, some of which has already been cited, to

¹ Bulletin No. 39, cited above.

show that certain schools and certain universities will offer unusually rich opportunities in some one subject or group of subjects, as, for example, the Cornell summer department of geography.

6. With the admission of history, art, expression, physical culture, to the list of college and university subjects, schools which deal especially with these departments will be drawn into closer relations with higher educational institutions.

7. In spite of this general tendency a few strong centers may be expected to persist as independent institutions, offering instruction under college and university auspices, maintaining religious exercises in close association with the leading churches and fostering a community life which shall have a distinctive and traditional value.

Above all, the one great tendency which seems to be revealed by facts of past and present is that toward a more intimate and direct relationship, organic or personal, between summer schools and the centers of higher education — the universities and the colleges.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

The term university extension is used in a specific and in a general sense. It describes a certain type of popular education developed in England twenty-five years ago. It is also employed for example by the University of the state of New York, in a general sense, to include home education, study clubs, summer schools, correspondence schools, reading circles and traveling libraries. We shall deal first with university extension in the special sense, and then briefly call attention to some of the other forms of popular education.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION IN ENGLAND

If we ignore two or three vague foreshadowings of university extension which diligent students have discovered in the records of Oxford and Cambridge, we may date the movement from 1872, when the University of Cambridge received memorials from mechanics' institutes in Leeds,

Birmingham and Nottingham, and from the North of England Council for the Education of Women. These appeals asked for some form of university teaching for large numbers of clerks, artisans and others in the same position who felt the need of higher education, but were unable to resort to the university. In 1873, in response to these requests, courses of lectures were given, one at Leicester, another at Derby and a third at Nottingham. To the new movement was applied a term, "university extension," which had been coined in 1850, when William Sewell of Exeter college, Oxford, had proposed the establishment, in the large towns of England, of local colleges in affiliation with Oxford. The new idea was summed up in the sentence: "The university must go to the people who cannot come to the university."

During the first two or three years experience in the field brought out devices which were soon made a part of the system. For example, Mr. James Stuart, after addressing an audience of women, was diffident about questioning his hearers. He asked for written papers and thus one feature of the plan was hit upon. The natural desire of some of the audience to remain after the lecture and discuss the subject led to the adoption of the "after-class" idea. The financial advantage of having the lecturer meet in the afternoon a special class usually of women who could afford to pay rather generous fees led gradually to the adoption of the study-class plan. The desire to aid auditors unskilled in notetaking and to furnish suggested readings led to the adoption of the printed syllabus. From the outset continuity in the lectures was a basal principle. Within a comparatively short time, therefore, we find the university extension system of teaching in practically complete form. It includes the following features:

1. A course of six, twelve or even more lectures dealing with one subject or one subdivision of a subject, *e. g.*, a period of history.
2. A printed syllabus containing an outline of the lectures with suggested readings and topics for written work.

3. An after class for which a part or all of the auditors remain to ask questions and discuss with the lecturer points raised in his discourse.

4. A study class, usually in the afternoon, for teaching and discussion rather than for formal lecturing.

5. A library either provided locally or sent from a central extension office.

6. Weekly papers written by members of the audience and submitted to the lecturer for revision and comment.

7. A final examination set by a person other than the lecturer, the successful passing of which is recognized by a certificate.

The conditions in England were ripe for the spread of this movement. The establishment of board schools, the breaking down of barriers of admission to the universities, the prosperous economic conditions of the higher artisan class with consequent leisure, the system of social classes in England which made the patronage of the plan by the upper classes a feasible method of support, the compact area of Great Britain—all favored the growth of university extension work. In 1876 the London Society for the Extension of University Teaching¹ was established and at once began to play an important part. The University of Oxford adopted the plan in 1878, but did not begin active work until 1885. Durham university joined the University of Cambridge, Victoria university established centers in Lancashire and Yorkshire, the four Scottish universities combined to foster university extension in north Britain, and in the north of Ireland a society was formed. In 1892 Mr. Saddler estimated that 60,000 people were attending extension lectures in Great Britain, of whom 15,000 were writing weekly papers and 5,000 standing for final examinations.

At the twenty-fifth anniversary in 1898 the reports from the Cambridge, London, Oxford and Victoria societies showed that during the previous winter (1897-98) 488

¹ This society ceased to exist Oct. 1, 1902, when its work was transferred to the University of London.

courses had been attended by 50,000 people. It is to be noted that university extension in England has dealt exclusively with academic or cultural subjects. It has not entered the field of technical training with regard to which so much interest has recently been manifested in Great Britain. The county councils, the mechanics' institutes and the trade schools have reached large numbers, but this work is not included in the university extension field. It is interesting to note that the English plan has been widened to include a summer meeting suggested by the American idea, notably that of Chautauqua.

The experience of twenty-five years at Cambridge has been summed up in this conservative fashion.¹ Two facts are said to have been established :

a. Apart from a demand for technical and professional education there is a considerable demand for general education.

b. Of the persons interested in such general education from twelve to twenty per cent are prepared to read, to study, to write papers ; in short, to become serious students.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION IN THE UNITED STATES

To the late Professor Herbert B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins university, belongs the chief credit for introducing university extension in the United States. He presented the matter for the first time publicly at a meeting of the American Library Association at Thousand islands in September, 1887. The following winter the plan was put into effect in Buffalo, where Professor E. W. Bemis gave a course of lectures on economics in connection with the Buffalo public library. In January, 1888, Mr. Melvil Dewey urged the university extension plan upon the regents of the University of the State of New York. This resulted in May, 1891, in the incorporation of extension as one of the five great divisions of the University of the State of New York. At the

¹ Quoted in Concerning University Extension. Amer. Soc. for the Ex. of Univ. Teaching. Phila. 1899, p. 12.

same time a special appropriation of \$10,000 was made by the Legislature for the support of the new work.

In February, 1890, a meeting was held in Philadelphia to consider the organization of university extension in that city. The following summer Mr. George Henderson, as secretary of this movement, was sent to England to study university extension methods. On his return in the autumn the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching was organized ; the first center was formed on November 3, 1890, and during the winter the number was increased to twenty-three. A year later, November, 1891, university extension was organized in Chicago with Mr. Charles Zueblin as secretary, and Professors Butler, E. A. Ross and J. A. Woodburn as the chief lecturers.

The idea spread with great rapidity. It seemed a simple thing to put the English plan into operation in the United States immediately. There were thousands of college professors presumably ready to lecture on a great variety of topics. There were undoubtedly scores of thousands of people eager to receive instruction from university sources. The colleges and universities vied with each other in the rapidity with which they issued circulars, announcing lists of lectures and proposing the organization of centers. The state universities of the middle west saw in the movement an opportunity to get into closer relations with their constituency, and lost no time in entering the field.

A national conference on university extension was called for December 29-31, 1891, at Philadelphia, under the auspices of the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching. Dr. William T. Harris, the United States commissioner of education, representatives of Chautauqua, of the Young Men's Christian Association, of leading churches and of many universities and colleges were present. Reports indicated that university extension had already been organized in 28 states and territories. A note of optimism ran through all the addresses. Few of the

speakers suggested doubts or difficulties. The general feeling seemed to be that university extension was peculiarly adapted to a great democracy and would quickly triumph.¹ Dr. Harris said: "This enterprise is one of the most important undertaken in our century since the establishment of the common public school."

Mr. Melvil Dewey was almost alone in sounding a note of warning. In his address on university extension in New York, he introduced this paragraph:

"Then there is the kindling wood danger. In lighting a hard coal fire there is a great blaze, a roar and not a little heat as the shavings and kindlings blaze fiercely up. We are now in just this period of university extension, and it is altogether probable that after a little the blaze and roar and heat will die down and the casual observer will say, 'That is ended,' and turn to the next new fad; but, as with the fire, if we handle it properly it will mean only that the coal is just kindling, and after a little will give a strong heat and we shall be in an era of real university extension."²

This acute observation foreshadowed truly what was to follow. By more than half the organizations the experiment was continued for two or three years with waning enthusiasm on the part of lecturers and audiences. By 1895 many of the universities had abandoned the work altogether or continued it in a feeble fashion only. In three centers the work maintained itself and grew. These were Philadelphia, New York and Chicago. The American society in Philadelphia was efficiently administered, and an annual deficit was met by generous friends. Lecturers of tried ability were brought from England to strengthen a staff recruited from able Americans. Among the men whose names are associated with the Philadelphia work may be mentioned Professors Richard G. Moulton, H. J. Mac-

¹ A notable exception was Professor George H. Palmer, who wrote an article, "Doubts About University Extension," for the *Atlantic*, March, 1892.

² Proceedings of the First National Conference on University Extension. Phila. 1892, p. 272.

kinder, Hudson Shaw, Frederick H. Sykes, Edward Howard Griggs and Earl Barnes.

In New York the University of the State of New York has not directly conducted regular extension work, but in New York city the free lecture courses under the auspices of the board of education have in many cases been moulded more and more into the extension form. The Teachers' college and the Brooklyn institute of arts and sciences offer university extension courses of unusual thoroughness. In 1897 the People's institute was organized and began extension work. A year later the People's University Extension Society of New York entered the field in which it has maintained itself with growing efficiency ever since. In Chicago, the original university extension society withdrew when in 1892 extension was made an organic part of the University of Chicago which has maintained this division with increasing success to the present time. The university early secured the services of Professor Richard G. Moulton, whose lectures in England and afterward in Philadelphia made him the most notable figure in the extension field. With him are associated Professors Charles Zueblin, Edwin E. Sparks, William H. Hudson, J. H. Raymond and a large number of other lecturers who either give all their time or devote a part of it wholly to university extension lecturing. Until recently the extension division was administered by Professor E. J. James — now president of Northwestern university — who was one of the originators of the Philadelphia society.

The experience of a dozen years in transplanting this movement to American soil has proved clearly that the exotic takes root and grows only where certain conditions can be steadily fulfilled. These are :

1. Lecturers of the Right Type. It is a serious blunder to suppose that the average college professor is fitted for university extension work. The extension lecturer must not only know his subject but must have those rare personal qualities which give him control over a popular audience

whose stability of attention may not be counted upon unless it is secured by the arts of skillful public speech.

2. The staff lecturers must give their whole time to extension work or must devote a part of their time exclusively to this field. Only in this way, under American conditions, can the work be done effectively and economically.

3. There must be adequate financial support. In Philadelphia the annual deficit of about \$7,000 is made up by subscription. In Chicago the university appropriates a part of its revenue to the support of the extension division. In New York there is state and municipal aid. The English plan of selling tickets at two prices, one for the well-to-do, the other for the artisan class, cannot be successfully undertaken in democratic American communities.

STATISTICS OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

Courses and Audiences.—The average number of lectures in the university extension course is much lower in the United States than in England. The English ideal is a twelve-lecture course; the American standard is approximately six. At the University of Chicago in 1892-3 the average number of lectures per course was six, in 1901-2 the average was about six and a half. The same average (1902-3, 6.7) prevails in the work of the American society at Philadelphia.¹ For the winter of 1899-1900 the board of education in New York offered fifty-four lecture courses. Of these three were of ten lectures each, one of eight, fourteen of six and thirteen of five. It should be noted, however, that in many cases these courses were not given by the same lecturer, but consisted of different lectures on related topics. This is a departure from regular extension methods. The same season the People's institute in New York gave sixteen courses, three of which were of ten lectures each and ten of six. At the Teachers' college and at the Brooklyn institute the standard is thirty lectures in each course.

¹ The average number of lectures per center (1902-3) given by the American Society was 6.3; by the University of Chicago, 6.6.

The statistics of attendance are rather misleading. Sometimes a society reports the total number of admissions, in which case the work is greatly magnified. For example, if 200 people attend a course of six lectures the aggregate of admissions, 1,200, is imposing. The University of Chicago and the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching report average attendance as well as aggregate admissions. Thus for the season of 1902-3 the American society reports an average attendance at courses, 253; a total attendance at courses, 24,794; a total attendance at lectures, 141,427.

TABLE SHOWING THE EXTENSION WORK OF THE AMERICAN SOCIETY AND THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

YEAR.	AMERICAN SOCIETY.			UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.		
	No. centers.	No. courses.	Attendance at courses.	No. centers.	No. courses.	Attendance at courses.
1890-1.....	21	42	9, 282
1891-2.....	60	121	20, 570
1892-3.....	65	107	18, 404	67	124	26, 728
1893-4.....	76	112	16, 128	72	89	14, 063
1894-5.....	91	126	20, 034	95	128	23, 757
1895-6.....	85	104	21, 216	81	122	25, 345
1896-7.....	57	79	12, 245	95	141	29, 344
1897-8.....	61	79	18, 091	92	141	30, 315
1898-9.....	60	89	21, 983	93	125	24, 993
1899-0.....	65	95	22, 705	97	127	29, 693
1900-1.....	74	95	24, 700	110	139	32, 807
1901-2.....	64	84	22, 092	140	190	35, 922
1902-3.....	79	98	24, 794	146	208	43, 564

In 1899 the American society made an investigation which resulted in securing reports from sixteen extension offices, which, combined with the statistics of the American society, showed that up to the date of the inquiry, 541 centers had been organized, and 2,487 courses, averaging six lectures each, had been given. The aggregate attendance at courses was estimated to have been 2,758,466.

For the winter of 1902-3 the University of Chicago reports 146 centers, 208 courses, 25 lecturers and 43,564 attendants. For the same year the Philadelphia society returns 81 centers, 98 courses and 24,794 auditors. The

work of the chief societies in New York city, when reduced so far as possible to a university extension basis, *i. e.*, to attendants upon consecutive lecture courses, is estimated as follows: The free popular lectures under the auspices of the New York board of education, 800 courses, with an attendance of 250,000; the People's institute, 30 courses, with an attendance of 15,000. Obviously, these figures are incomplete and, in some measure, misleading. There are numerous duplications. For example, many courses given by Philadelphia lecturers are counted both by the American society¹ and by the New York People's institute and board of education. Moreover, these returns obviously ignore an immense amount of lecturing of a systematic character carried on under various auspices throughout the country. The statistics (see table) show that the work of the University of Chicago under direct university control with an endowed support has grown, with many fluctuations, from an attendance of 26,728 in 1892-3 to an attendance of 43,564 in 1902-3. The American society in Philadelphia has also grown, though rather less rapidly. It reported, in 1896-7, 20,000; in 1902-3, approximately, 25,000. The popular work in New York increases steadily under city subsidy and with the aid of private contributions.

Finances.—The cost of a university extension course to a local center varies from \$100 to \$130, in addition to local expenses and the traveling expenses of the lecturer. The usual fee of the University of Chicago is \$125 plus expenses. The University of Wisconsin began with \$60 for a course of six lectures, but has raised the fee to \$100. At these figures it is practically impossible to maintain lecturers of the first rank who will give their whole time to extension work. As has already been pointed out, the Philadelphia society has succeeded because of private subscriptions. The University of Chicago has spent from \$5,000 to \$10,000 a year over and above the revenues from extension centers. Experience has proved conclusively that university extension

¹ Of 98 courses reported by the American Society last year 39 were given under the auspices of other organizations.

dealing with culture studies, not with professional pursuits, cannot be made permanently self-sustaining.

DISAPPOINTMENTS IN UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

It has already been mentioned that the early enthusiasm for university extension in the United States did not long survive. Within two years a writer has spoken dogmatically of the "failure of university extension."¹ Professor H. B. Adams, not long before his death, frankly asserted that the zeal for university extension was steadily diminishing. He attributed the situation to, "first, lack of suitable extension lecturers; second, lack of financial support; third, the vast distances to be traveled by university men already overworked; fourth, the necessity and greater importance of academic service on college and university premises; and, fifth, the recognition of better and less expensive instrumentalities for popular education."²

Not only has there been a decline in interest, but the work itself has had its disappointments. It has not created so large a body of serious students as it was expected to do. To a considerable degree university extension lectures have replaced lyceum lectures and have attracted audiences who were accustomed to attend lectures of a somewhat different type. This has led to the popularizing of lectures, the increased use of stereopticon illustrations and other devices adapted to competition with prevailing entertainments.

While it is true that a good many people remain after the extension lecture for more or less desultory discussion, the word class is hardly an accurate description for this group. A small and probably decreasing number of people write weekly papers. An almost negligible number stand for final examinations. Thus, the American society reported in 1899-1900 that 22,794 persons attended lectures, 348 classes were held, 381 papers written and only 29 certificates were granted. In many of the popular courses in New York the

¹ "Failure of University Extension." Henry R. Palmer, N. Y. Observer, March 14, 1901.

² Education in the U. S. (Ed. by Nicholas Murray Butler.) Vol. 2, p. 849.

class, the written work and examinations play no part whatever. Thus, judged by many of the enthusiastic expectations of 1892 university extension in 1903 is a distinct disappointment.

Moreover, during the decade a comparatively small number of successful extension lecturers has been developed. The American society at one time proposed a seminary for the training of lecturers, but this plan was never carried out. The peculiar qualifications demanded of an extension lecturer are not easily discovered or developed. It is pretty clearly recognized that the average college or university professor is not fitted for extension lecturing. The hope, therefore, that hundreds and even thousands of university and college professors would be brought into personal contact with multitudes of their fellow-citizens has by no means been realized. The vast majority of genuine extension lectures to-day are being given by perhaps twenty-five or thirty men.

THE SUCCESS OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

While in the respects already pointed out university extension has not accomplished what it was counted upon to do, it has rendered many important services.

1. It has set a high standard for literary and scientific lecturers; it has emphasized continuity in subject-matter and clearness and system in presentation. Many an old-time lecturer has revamped his material upon the university extension model. The public demands this standard which university extension has helped in a notable way to establish.

2. The printed syllabus and the traveling library have been of great value outside the university extension field, developing into study club outlines, traveling picture collections as well as traveling libraries.

3. It has diffused widely a knowledge of higher education, popularizing scholarly ideals, and giving a more adequate conception of culture.

4. It has thus brought a large public into more intimate

sympathy with universities and colleges, with the effect of increasing the demand for higher education.

5. It has reacted upon the universities themselves, arousing a keener sense of obligation to the community, developing a deeper sympathy with the national life.

6. It has drawn together in many localities various groups and agencies and led them to co-operate in the interests of the higher life of the community.

7. It has mediated between school education and the library and museum, encouraging the use of books and interpreting the meaning of art and literature.

THE FUTURE OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

As in the case of summer schools, though to a still greater degree, university extension of the future will be a part of university work. Only where permanent support can be assured, and an adequate staff secured, can university extension of the special type be successfully continued. The logic of events would point to the transfer to the University of Pennsylvania of the work of the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching. The University of Chicago will maintain its extension work as in the past. Columbia university has recently established a department of extension under the direction of Dr. F. H. Sykes, a successful lecturer and administrator. Other universities may be expected to adopt the plan, but it will doubtless be modified with changing conditions and in adjustment to American life.¹ If a congress were to be held to-day, one would not hear the same optimistic note that was struck ten years ago; but, nevertheless, university extension is a fact of importance to-day, and is likely to remain a valuable feature of popular education in the United States.

¹ The University of California has recently announced a new form of extension teaching, by which the instructor will spend a day or two on each visit in personal conferences with students.

READING CIRCLES

In 1878 the Chautauqua Reading Circle was founded at Chautauqua, N. Y. It is known as the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. It offers a four years' course of reading, which seeks to provide the "college outlook" for people unable to attend regular educational institutions. The amount of reading at first was considerable in quantity and rather fragmentary in character. The success which greeted the new idea showed that it met a real need. It was not many years before 60,000 people were enrolled, and many other thousands were doing a part of the reading. Nearly fifteen per cent of the readers continued to the end of the four years, receiving a certificate in recognition of their work.

The essentials of the Chautauqua plan are : Certain prescribed volumes, most of them written especially for the purpose ; a monthly magazine with additional readings, notes and comments ; a memorandum paper with questions to be filled out, not as an examination, but as an aid in systematizing and memorizing the topics for the course ; a reading schedule prescribing certain chapters for each week. From year to year the course has been made more coherent and intensive. Fewer subjects have been treated, but these have been dealt with in a more detailed and exhaustive way. With the increase of cheap magazines, the growth of the library movement, the multiplication of popular lectures, the distribution of books by the ingenious and tireless agencies for this purpose, the multiplication of women's clubs and other semi-literary societies, the original conditions have changed and the field has been greatly subdivided. Nevertheless, the Chautauqua Circle still enrolls its thousands, and if it suffers at all in the competition it is because of the rather severe tasks which it imposes in an age given over largely to rapid and easy methods of getting information and acquiring polish.

A number of other reading circles on the Chautauqua plan have been organized, among which may be mentioned the Winona Reading Circle in connection with the Winona Assembly. In 1901 this circle was affiliated with the original Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. In connection with the assembly at Bay View, Mich., a circle was organized early in the 90's. It has maintained itself to the present time. In several of the states reading circles for teachers are directly fostered by state departments of instruction. The state of Indiana has one of the largest and most successful of these reading circles. The Home Reading Union, of England, is a direct outgrowth of the Chautauqua movement, having its origin in a suggestion made by Bishop Vincent during a visit to England in 1887. The reading circle idea has permanent value and may be expected to render important service, especially to isolated readers and groups of readers in smaller towns and villages. The multiplication of educational opportunities in cities causes a certain amount of distraction and in many ways offers a substitute for home reading.

CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION

Dr. William R. Harper instituted correspondence courses of instruction in Hebrew as early as 1880. When he became associated with Chautauqua this system of instruction was extended to other subjects, and the Chautauqua college of liberal arts from 1885 to 1895 conducted correspondence courses in ancient and modern languages, in literature, history, economics and all other academic subjects, with the exception of certain laboratory sciences. Like university extension, this correspondence work dealt wholly with cultural and not with technical subjects. A similar institution under Chautauqua auspices, the Chautauqua school of theology, conducted courses in Hebrew, New Testament Greek, church history, homiletics, systematic theology and the other subjects of the theological curriculum. In 1892 the University of Chicago made correspondence instruction one of the subdivisions of its extension department. A little later

the University of Wisconsin and the University of West Virginia undertook work of the same sort. In 1895 Chautauqua, which had maintained correspondence work at a loss for ten years, felt that it might withdraw from the field and leave to endowed institutions the carrying on of such teaching.

Early in the 90's correspondence schools of law, of commerce, bookkeeping, stenography and the like began to be advertised and pushed upon a commercial basis. Many of these enterprises were successful. The most notable exploiters of correspondence instruction, however, are those schools which teach technical subjects by mail. Schools of engineering have sprung up during the last few years and number their students by thousands. The idea has spread rapidly to all subjects of human knowledge, and correspondence instruction is urged on every hand. A popular magazine for December, 1903, announces in its advertising pages correspondence instruction in mercantile training, "college education at home," teaching of the art of advertising, training in proofreading, in caricature, in lettering, journalism, nursing, music, shorthand and the profession of the optician. Many of these schools undoubtedly offer valuable aids to their students. A large number of them are unquestionably enterprises of doubtful utility and a few are shameless frauds.

It is to be noted that correspondence instruction falls into two general classes: that which is purely cultural, with no utilitarian end in view, and that which is professional, aiming at putting students in the way of earning a living or increasing their incomes. The latter class, obviously, as they appeal to an economic motive, have had by far the greatest success. Some of the correspondence institutions which seem to be of the cultural type are, on further analysis, discovered to be professional, *i. e.*, designed to prepare teachers for examinations and in other ways to help them secure better teaching positions. The genuinely cultural work cannot be carried on on a commercial basis. Like university extension it requires some form of subsidy. In

the long run, therefore, correspondence instruction of genuine value in the humanities and pure sciences must be subsidized by the university, the state or in some other way.

The value of correspondence teaching in the abstract has been discussed at great length. It is obvious that the absence of the living teacher is a serious thing. On the other hand, in certain subjects, if the work is intelligently and carefully planned, faithfully pursued by the student and conscientiously revised by the instructor, experience shows that valuable educational results can be achieved. During the past year the University of Chicago had upon its books 1,593 correspondence students. The university recognizes correspondence work by crediting it in the same ratio as resident work for a degree, although limiting the amount of correspondence credit which may be offered for graduation.

Professor Edward Marburgh, secretary of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, and professor of civil engineering in the University of Pennsylvania, has made a careful study of correspondence instruction in technical education. After a judicial analysis of the facts, and after making careful distinctions between different classes of correspondence schools, he summarizes his conclusions in this paragraph:

"It is believed that any attempt at giving, by the correspondence method, a broad and thorough education to persons who, at the same time, follow their daily occupations must end in failure. Narrow and shallow courses of the kind described may be regarded as the inevitable issue. It should, however, again be emphasized that in the absence of better means, in so far as these schools are honestly conducted, they hold out opportunities to the many and rewards to the few well worth the effort of attainment. And, in conclusion, their highest destiny will have been achieved if, by their coming, they shall but quicken the birth of a system of popular education — industrial and commercial — worthy in every sense of this great nation."¹

¹ Report of Extension Teaching. Bulletin No. 39, University of the State of New York. Albany, Feb., 1903, pp. 455, 456.

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